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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the principles and concepts of several different processes and models of professional-client interaction in the initial face to face interview--Davies' approach, Silber's model, Shein's process consultation model, Havelock's change agent model, medical problem solving processes, and counseling processes. Conclusions drawn from a recent research project, which used a content analysis method to identify and categorize behaviors of professional instructional developers in the initial interview, are presented. It is suggested that instructional developers should master certain consultation competencies, which are identified from the literature and research, and some methods for training in these competency areas are proposed. (VT)

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PREPARING INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPERS
FOR THE INITIAL CLIENT CONFERENCE

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INTRODUCTION

Instructional development (ID) is in its infancy. It has evolved out of a broader concept of educational technology and is still in the process of rationalizing its existence, demonstrating its validity and conceptualizing its domain. Hoban (1973), in summarizing the views of Heinich, Gustafson, Merrill, Briggs and Hamreus from presentations given at the 1971 Association for Educational Communications and Technology Convention, has stated:

These five views offered at the 1971 AECT Convention serve to remind the field that it is still essentially new. Such concepts as learning theory, instructional theory, systems, strategies, empiricism, techniques, and others were used by the various leaders in attempting to provide a framework for instructional development. Some of the concepts and definitions are contradictory; others are complementary. Such thinking, however, is characteristic of a new field as it goes through a cyclic process of expanding and contracting its conceptual framework. This process will continue until educators feel that an accurate and satisfying definition has been provided.

As instructional developers or instructional development consultants, as they are sometimes called, work with clients to improve the quality of instruction through the utilization of these concepts, they apply processes or models developed from their education and/or experience. Some of the processes or models which have been formulated which give guidance regarding general procedures essential to the instructional development process are: Banathy, 1968; Griggs, 1970; Davis, Alexander and Yelon, 1974; Gerlach and Ely, 1972; Hamreus, 1968; Kaufman, 1970; Popham and Baker, 1970. These models for the most part are systematic in nature but do not provide great specificity for their application. Holsclaw (1974) supports this view when he states that little information is available in the literature giving explicit details as to how these general design procedures can be applied successfully in higher education. Even though Davis (1973) and Silber (1973) provide a theoretical orientation in some dimensions, little research

data seem to be available. Diamond (1975) calls for more research data when he states that we need to know more about ID approaches and techniques that work, and more about what has been tried and what happened when it was tried. He labels all these kinds of concerns as research questions.

Hoban (1973) has called for more descriptive data on the interaction of people engaged in instructional development, and Schein (1969), in discussing process consultation, indicates that little specific information has been written about what a consultant does when he is with a client. Thiagarajan (1973) supports these points of view by commenting on the need for more information to prepare instructional developers for the complexities of client interaction.

The problem seems to be clear that there is a need for a greater knowledge base as to what, exactly, instructional development consultants do as they apply and interpret any one or more of a wide variety of general models to working with clients in an instructional development environment.

This paper will examine some principles and concepts suggested by several authors as they apply to professional-client interaction in the initial face to face conference. In addition, this paper presents conclusions drawn from some recent research conducted by the author regarding the behavior of practicing instructional developers in the initial client conference. Finally this paper will suggest necessary competencies which instructional developers should master in training programs prior to practicing the profession. These competencies will be drawn from literature and the research conducted by the author. Some methods for training instructional developers in these competency areas will also be suggested.

OVERVIEW OF SEVERAL MODELS

What follows is a review of the components of several models which present some principles of the professional client interaction. The review for this paper will include only the initial steps of each model which are concerned. The initial interactions between the client and professional. The word professional in this context was chosen because some of the models deal with other professions than instructional development.

Davies' Approach

Davies (1973) describes the first stage with a client as "entering into a relationship". He has further subcategorized this phase into: (1) initial contacts with the client system, and (2) negotiation of a formal relationship. Davies emphasizes that when entering into a relationship, there is a desire to get on with the job instead of establishing the relationship and defining roles of all involved in terms of what the client expects to accomplish. Davies feels that it is important to lay this strong foundation from which the project can be developed.

The initial contact with the client system may come from a letter or telephone call to set up a meeting. In the telephone conversation or letter the instructional developer may be given some information as to the problem or reason for the meeting, or the initial contact may just establish a meeting time. Davies suggests trying to find out why the developer was approached, as it may provide data as to the client's philosophical and professional orientation.

The first face-to-face contact may come at the exploratory meeting. This is the first time that the client and developer may come together to discuss in precise terms the nature and scope of the problem situation.

In addition, the meeting should serve to establish the degree of assistance that can be given and to design a plan for any further action. Davies also suggests that the developer will want to determine the contact client as well as determine the organization of the client system. The exploratory meeting should also include other relevant members of the client systems and other developers, if necessary. A high ranking member of the client system should be there to commit faculty member's time and some financial support to the project. An open but confronting atmosphere should be maintained. The developer should attempt to determine client willingness and commitment, the practical outcomes of the purpose for the meeting, and potential resource allocations. The developer also has to examine the potential payoff for himself and the possibility of an institutionalized project. Once it has been agreed that the project is worth developing, Davies has suggested the negotiation of a formal relationship has begun. Davies next raises the question of the most appropriate method of entering the client system and how it may not be through the person who was initially identified as the client. This is an important issue that Davies has raised because of the efficiency of the developer's time. It is important that the developer deal with a person, as a client, who will at least have a positive effect on the client system, if not a major impact.

Davies suggests that there are actually two contracts to be negotiated with the client. One is a formal contract and the other is a psychological contract. The formal contract addresses such issues as tasks, time, method, termination, variables and benefits for all concerned. The psychological contract is concerned with the expectations that each has of the other. It involves a willingness and commitment to

the project in terms of time and degree of effort. Davies also indicates that the contracts should specify role definition and allocation of resources.

When considering the Davies approach, it is important to integrate all he has to say regarding the clarification of assumptions and expectations and the very important role that this insight should play in the initial exploratory meeting and the continued relationship with the client.

Silber's Model

Silber (1973) includes in his approach much of what Davies explores, but arranges the process somewhat differently and is somewhat more explicit about his strategies. He is also more specific in some categories than Davies.

Silber analyzes the initial two phases of the developer-client relationship as: (A) establishing a relationship, and (B) gathering data regarding the problems. Under establishing the relationship, he has listed: (1) breaking the ice, (2) establishing the tone, (3) communicating non-verbally, (4) identifying expectations, (5) identifying expectations and assumptions, (6) listening, and (7) contracting.

Breaking the ice is a strategy that is designed to establish a pleasant and cordial relationship with the client. Warmness and openness are also characteristics of this strategy. Attempting to let the client know "where you are coming from" or something of your value system may help draw out the client so you can begin to learn "who he is" or something of his values. Davies' (1973) expectation of the exploratory meeting does not include the detail that Silber presents, but he does use such language as "openness" in describing the tone of the exploratory

meeting. In Silber's subcategory under establishing a relationship, he describes the procedure for establishing the tone with the client. He describes the importance of being task-oriented and establishing an air of equality. Openness is again listed as an important element of setting an appropriate tone of praise, constructive criticism and a non-threatening, helping relationship which contributes to a positive atmosphere.

The importance of non-verbal communication is next emphasized with attention given to the value of a pleasant, calm and equal voice tone. Body language should be read as equal and open and non-verbal reinforcers should reward and be conducive to an open and equal interchange.

Identifying expectations is described as the next strategy for establishing a relationship. Davies (1973) is very thorough in his description of client expectations and assumptions. Silber does not list assumption clarification specifically, but in his description of what he calls identifying expectations, he does allude to assumption testing. He mentions the necessary components of this strategy as determining why the client is seeing the developer and what brought the client at this particular time. What the client and others expect out of the project is listed as necessary to determine, as well as to clarify understanding of what the client thinks the developer can do for him. The client should also be clear as to what he expects of himself and how much time he is willing to commit to the project. Another essential area of clarification is the amount of time available for the completion of the project.

Listening is another skill that must be practiced carefully and accurately. The instructional developer must "listen" to both the verbal and non-verbal stimuli. Careful listening is essential if the developer is to be able to synthesize and interpret what the client has said

verbally and non-verbally. Another key point to remember is not to interrupt the client. Davies (1973) considers the development of a formal and psychological contract as necessary for the satisfactory implementation and completion of a project. Silber, too, has contracting as a category for special attention. He states that this needs to be done carefully and in a timely way and should result in a specification of what is to be done, when it is to be completed and by whom. Modes of accountability should be determined for all parties and a clear commitment should be given by all parties to fulfill their respective parts of the contract.

The second phase that could be considered within the domain of the first meeting between client and developer is the gathering of data regarding the problem. Silber has divided this activity into four major categories: (1) identifying the current state of the art; (2) eliciting/probing the client; (3) generating examples; and (4) identifying the client. Davies (1973) establishes problem definitions as necessary stages that the developer goes through, but his process is not as linear as Silber's. It seems that the stages of relationship development that Davies suggests are optional when the problem is being defined with the client as well as his interpretation of the data. Silber first suggests that the present system be assessed in terms of content, technique, instructor role and use of media. The identification of course success in terms of student attitude, instructor reaction, as well as problems, provide key data at this point. It is strongly suggested that solutions should be avoided at this stage because of the lack of data.

The next step suggests the developer solicit and probe the client for information regarding the project or course. This is done by asking general questions related to goals and from there to more specific questions.

The generation of examples, the next subcategory, can be useful in helping the client to get to specifics and clarify the answers to previous questions. Silber also suggests that it is necessary to identify the type of client with which the developer will be interacting. He lists this as the last step in gaining data regarding the problem. Some of the information necessary for such a decision is to determine whether the client will be cooperative or tend to block efforts being made in the project. It must also be determined if the attitude of the client is a superior one or one of equality. Determining where he is philosophically and pragmatically will help to determine his attitude towards instructional development and the developer. Identifying the client's personality as to openness vs. defensiveness, whether he is a traditionalist or an empiricist, a worker or slow producer and his general ability can all be data which may be helpful in decision making.

Schein's Process Consultation Model

Within the scheme by Schein (1969), stage one (initial contact with the client's organization) and stage two (defining the relationship, formal contract and psychological contract) indicate an obvious similarity between Schein and Davies (1973) exists because much of what Davies proposes was adapted from Schein's writings. However, there is enough difference and specificity in Schein's work to warrant a close examination of the first two states of his approach.

The initial contact with the client system can be made in a variety of ways. These contacts will also vary in the degree of information available from the client. The client may attempt to describe the problem or may simply make an appointment with the developer or the developer's secretary. Regardless, the contact is usually not face-to-face but by

telephone or letter and the relationship does not actually start until the first exploratory meeting. Schein, Davies and Silber emphasize that it is important to find why the client has come to the developer. At that time, the instructional developer may also learn something of the client's values, expectations or assumptions by finding out why the developer was contacted. Schein emphasizes that the quality of the long-term relationship can be determined by the initial relationship formed between the client and the consultant. The client can also be evaluated for degree of openness, spirit of inquiry and authenticity of communication by assessing responses to questions related to his willingness to explore the dimensions of the problem he professes to perceive. Schein points out that if the client wants reassurance for some form of action or a quick solution to a temporary superficial problem, it may be a predictor of an uncommitted client.

If all the client wants is a meeting, it may not be possible to explore these directions and they become part of the next phase, the exploratory meeting. Regardless of where the information is gathered, it is all essential to the very early stages of developing the relationship and defining the problem. The exploratory meeting can easily become the first diagnostic step toward the establishment of a relationship.

The exploratory meeting involves face-to-face contact with the client, perhaps some of his associates and the consultant or instructional developer. Others may be included in the meeting if they are decision-makers in the organization. It might be wise to invite other people to a later meeting, once a relationship has been established with the client and the problem has been identified. Schein then outlines the purposes of the exploratory meeting as: (1) determine the problem, (2) determine the involvement of the consultant/developer, (3) determine the interest of the project to the consultant, and (4) formulate the next action steps.

Schein (1973) spent a great period of time establishing the relationship by listing methods of breaking the ice, setting the tone, identifying expectations and assumptions. Davies, too, devotes much effort to examining the kinds of assumptions that need to be clarified early in the relationship. In most cases, the exploratory meeting will be the environment for such a clarification procedure. Schein's basic premise is that it is the role of the consultant to help others help themselves and it is this principle which affects his decision-making as he interacts with clients. He explains that the process starts with the first contact, whether that is an initial telephone call or the exploratory meeting.

The exploratory meeting is usually carried on with an open-ended discussion with the client which is designed to sharpen and highlight the aspects of the problem and test how open and frank the client is willing to be. Schien also mentions the formal and psychological contracts. Much of what Schien mentions Davies has already summarized in his interpretation of the formal and psychological contracts. Silber (1973) also considers contracting with the client as to what will be done, when and by whom. He also considers the clarification of expectations as part of this contract as well as both parties' understanding their obligations to fulfill their part of the bargain. Schien makes it clear that crucial elements of the relationship are definition of role, willingness of client to be open and taking on responsibility, and stating openly expectations and assumptions.

The final phase of the exploratory meeting, which is relevant for the instructional developer, establishes a method of work. This procedure involves the setting of goals, strategies or methods necessary to achieve those goals, and a time schedule for the completion of goals. How often the client and developer should meet is also an issue in need of clarification. It is important that agreement is achieved on the goals of work, as well as the

methods to be used and the establishment of the realistic time schedule.

Havelock's Change Agent Model

Havelock (1973) provides an explanation of the stages the change agent goes through. He presents the change agent in education as a process-oriented person. Since the instructional developer is considered by many to be a change agent in education, this particular approach seems to be a relevant one to examine. Stage 1, building a relationship, will be examined along with Stage 2, diagnosing the problem, since these two stages would most likely be stages the change agent/instructional developer moves through as he initially works with the client. This change will be further examined in some detail as they relate to this study.

Havelock, in his explanation of creating a relationship with a new client, defines the relationship as a complex and delicate bridge. He places importance on the change agent being acutely aware of norms, values, leadership and influence patterns and how they affect the developing relationship. He believes that the relationship is beset by a host of uncertainties and unknown factors. He also emphasizes that the change agent is continuously making decisions from data gathered from a variety of resources. These decisions may be based on bits and pieces of data that may or may not be reliable and can affect the relationship and direction of the project. An interesting concept proposed by Havelock suggests that the client usually enters a relationship with an open-minded attitude of which the change agent should take complete advantage. The client may believe a new face will bring new possibilities. This positive approach has not been proposed by other authors and may offer an opportunity for developers that has not been exploited to its limits.

The instructional developer tends to work from outside the client's system and is faced with a variety of advantages and disadvantages as an outsider. One advantage is that the developer enters the client's system without

any negative stereotypes. As an outsider, the change agent can also gain a perspective of the problem which helps "get an objective look". He may be able to see problems and identify needs and opportunities which the client may not perceive. Being outside the client's power structure and having a different expertise than the client are also advantages.

Being a stranger to the system can be a disadvantage because he may be perceived as a threat because he has the potential of disturbing the natural order of the system. The change agent may also lack knowledge of the system in which the client functions which may cause him to make wrong decisions. The change agent also may not care enough about the needs of the client since the system is not his.

Havelock emphasized the fact that the relationship between the client and change agent builds on the first encounter. How the client sees the change agent and his initial feeling will affect how successful a problem solving stage will be. Havelock indicates there are four major considerations for managing the initial encounter with the client, they are: (1) friendliness, (2) familiarity, (3) rewardingness, and (4) responsiveness. Friendliness is usually judged by a smile, a warm greeting, looking directly into the eye and calling a person by their first name whenever possible. Havelock describes these gestures as important elements of the first encounter since it is not clear to the client whether the change agent will be a threat to his environment.

Familiarity is also considered by this approach to be an essential element in the initial interaction. Within this strategy the change agent should attempt to establish some common point of communication outside the project, such as sports, politics, entertainment or common acquaintances. Humor can also serve to "break the ice", as Silber (1973) describes it in his approach

Havelock also describes "rewardingness" as a technique of strategy in gaining the client's confidence. It is referred to as a token award system

which is operationalized by doing something for the client as soon as possible. This may be the dispensing of printed material, identifying a resource person that might be useful to the client, or suggesting a technique which the client may not have within his experience.

Responding to the client's explanation and talking at the appropriate time are also suggested by this approach. Listening carefully to the client and responding verbally and non-verbally to his talking will show "alertiveness". Asking for clarification of points or responding back in different words will also show the client that the change agent understands and is responding to his needs, concerns and ideas.

These strategies (friendliness, familiarity, "rewardingness" and responsiveness) are considered preliminary niceties and they begin to build the necessary trust and openness which provide the foundation for attacking the issues of the problem. Silber (1973), in his explanation of "establishing the relationship", also describes such strategies as being pleasant, cordial, open, praising the client, using non-verbal communication reinforcers as well as listening skills which relate very closely to the strategies Havelock explains.

Havelock goes on to specify the components of the ideal relationship. Reciprocity is described as the first characteristic of such a relationship and emphasizes the importance of give-and-take as a method of increasing mutual appreciation of the problem and making diagnosis more accurate.

Openness is second and is essential for both the client and the change agent. Openness is analyzed into: (1) receiving new ideas, (2) seeking out new ideas, (3) desire for self-renewal, (4) willingness to share new ideas with others, (5) openness to listen to problems of others, and, (6) openness to give authentic feedback to each other.

Setting realistic expectations for any kind of project is another characteristic of the ideal relationship. Importance is placed on the client's understanding of expectations for the project, so that he will not expect too much or too little. Identifying expectations has been emphasized throughout this chapter by Davies, Silber, Schein and Havelock as a necessary element to initial stages of developing a working relationship. Havelock does mention, however, that the change agent should give the client a reason to believe or expect a change and that the innovation will, if successful, make things better.

One strategy which may be used to encourage the client to accept success from the change is piloting the project. This strategy can be used to show the client that change can take place without committing major resources. Piloting is also mentioned by Rogers (1971) as a way of providing tangible evidence that the change agent can be a helpful person and conveying to the client that the relationship can be a rewarding one.

Structure is another characteristic of the ideal relationship. Structure should define the rules, working procedures and expected outcomes. The change agent needs to be careful that this is not done in a rigid fashion, but that goals, procedures and a distribution of labor and reward be clarified.

Davies, Schein and Silber also emphasize along with Havelock the importance of establishing a contract if the commitment of the client is in question. Such a contract would: state the commitments, be reciprocal, be clear on a time line and clarify the conditions of termination by mutual consent.

Equal power is also described as a characteristic of the ideal relationship in terms of the importance of the effect on the relationship

if one party has much more power than the other party. When the power of the two parties is equivalent, it cannot be the factor that brings about change. Where power is not equivalent, it may appear to bring about change by forcing the weaker partner to comply and this does not bring about lasting effectiveness. Since most people, according to Havelock, look upon any change in their environment as initially a disturbance and not a benefit, it is important that the change create, as much as possible, a non-threatening atmosphere in the relationship. Thus, creating this minimum threat situation through equal power is another characteristic of the ideal relationship.

Silber describes confronting as an important strategy for the developer in opening up those critical matters that delay the project. (Havelock also considers confronting the difference that exists as an issue or characteristic of the relationship that must be addressed.) The openness to be frank on crucial matters and have an honest confrontation of differences may create a stronger relationship and get both parties through hard times.

As a last characteristic, Havelock describes the importance of keeping all relevant parties informed as to the state of development of activities. These relevant parties that the change agent will affect, especially policy makers or decision makers, must be involved to some degree. They must know "where you are," "why you are there" and must accept to some degree the change agent being there.

In addition to the characteristics of the ideal relationship, Havelock also describes some six indicators or danger signals of a potentially bad relationship which may be doomed to failure. A long history of unresponsiveness to change is one of the danger signals. The change agent should study the past history of the prospective client in dealing with change. If the client or his system has responded in the past with

indifference or rejection, it may be inefficient for the change agent to get involved. Being used as a pawn in a political situation or to help the client prove a point with someone is another danger signal and the situation should be avoided.

Responding to a client who is likely to have very little effect on his total system is another danger signal, and may not be an efficient use of the change agent's time. Even though the client is innovative and receptive to change, if he is powerless in the system where the leader(s) is resistant to change, the change agent may be wasting his time if he wants to affect the system through the client. Diamond (1975) describes the cooperation of the leader(s) of the system as essential before any commitment should be made by an instructional developer.

The change agent should also learn to recognize the signs of client pathology as major incapacities or danger signals to establishing a productive relationship. Excessive rigidity or obsessive concerns with particular issues or seeing issues in only black and white terms are indicators of problems. The inability of the system to gather resources or get key people to meetings may also be indicators of system incapacity.

If such signs do appear in the early stages, the change agent should be aware of them. The last danger signal which Havelock describes is when the client makes negative responses to a well-managed initial encounter. If the change agent has done all the "right things" and receives negative responses, a dismal, non-productive relationship may be forecast.

In addition to the characteristics of an ideal initial relationship and the six danger signals, Havelock offers five points on how to size up the relationship. The first deals with the importance of building the inside-outside team. This is concerned with building a team of people that will be involved in the project that represents those people

that are inside the client system, as well as those that are outside the client system.

The second point is concerned with the importance of using the techniques of friendliness, familiarity, rewards and responsiveness in the initial encounter.

The third emphasis is on the importance of being able to identify in each relationship the features of the ideal relationship.

The fourth point emphasizes the importance of being able to spot the danger signals, and the fifth is concerned with maintenance of the relationship.

Havelock also mentions that these features of his approach are not just emphasized in the initial stages of the relationship, but are important to build on as the relationship progresses. Much is dependent on the personality of the change agent and the skills that he has in dealing at the interpersonal level with people.

Medical Problem Solving Processes

A series of steps outline the conventional medical problem solving model. Two major steps, (1) collecting the facts, and (2) analyzing the facts, can be broken into ten steps which take the physician through the process of collecting a variety of data, the generating of alternatives and the selection of a final diagnosis which leads to treatment.

It was emphasized by Wintrake (1970) that the physician may generate a hypothesis at any point in the process. The approach is based on a conception of scientific inquiry which assumes that the scientist objectively goes about gathering data and then objectively and systematically analyzes the data and inductively generates conclusions.

Kellel (1970) asserts that the expectations and assumptions of the scientist affect his judgement of the data and that the new data con-

tinue to change his expectation, which affect his cognitive information processing. Nisser (1967) suggests that a person's expectations (pre-suppositions, assumptions, ideas or hypotheses) have a significant impact on cognitive activity such as visual and auditory perception and visual and auditory memory. Newell and Simon (1972) indicate that such mental sets (assumptions, expectations, etc.) initiate, organize and direct his subsequent information processing activities.

The results of such research, integrated into the dynamics of the instructional developer-client initial interaction, places greater emphasis on what Davies (1973) describes as clarifying expectations and assumptions on both sides of a struggling relationship.

In general, the scientific inquiry approach has little to offer the initial stages of the developer-client relationship until the relationship develops to the problem identification stage. At that point, aspects of other approaches examined in the chapters are similar, at least in logic, to the conventional medical approach. The research that has been done in recent years in medical problem solving seems to have the most to offer the dynamics of the instructional developer-client relationship at the point where the problem is foremost.

The analogy of the patient-physician relationship to the consultant-client can be examined for its relevance to the instructional developer-client relationship. Three points can be made which suggest the physician-patient relationship and the consultant-client relationship are misleading analogies: (1) the way the "patient" is identified; (2) the responsibilities for the diagnoses; and (3) the degree of participation of the client in formulating and carrying out the "treatment". Some specifics can now be explored since they are directly related to approaches that can be taken in initial interaction between instructional developer and clients.

The consultant does not function similar to the doctor since few "patients" (clients) say "something is wrong with me" as he might say to the physician. The consultant is likely to hear statements that would relate to problems of someone else, something else or the system in general. The patient approaches the system ready to admit that it is he, himself, who needs help.

The physician-patient relationship can also be questioned as a model for consultants and/or developers because it does not address the key issues of the client-consultant or developer-client relationship. These issues are: (1) what is the client system, (2) the development of strategies for establishing an initial relationship, and (3) examining expectations and assumptions and other elements that Davies (1973), Silber (1973), Schein (1969) and Havelock (1973) describe. Another reason for rejecting the doctor-patient model is that the instructional developer or consultant involves the client in diagnosis and then helps the client to help himself. It is more of a peer interaction, as contrasted to medicine where the patient, in most cases, is not actively involved in data gathering, decision-making or treatment implementation. However, it must be mentioned that medical schools are attempting to prepare physicians to involve patients more in the process of their own medical care. The patient, in most cases, follows the direction of the physician without a lot of knowledge about what their physician is doing or why he is doing it.

A Counseling Process

Arbuckle (1970) describes several variables that he considers essential prior to and during the initial conference with a new client. He first describes the physical surroundings as an important variable

which may affect the client's attitude. Privacy is mentioned as a necessity if the client is to talk freely and openly. A clean, comfortable and pleasant office may give the client some confidence in the counselor.

Preparation for the counseling session is considered by Arbuckle to be necessary. The degree to which the counselor prepares may depend on who he perceives his role and the constraints of time. The establishment of rapport is next mentioned by Arbuckle as a crucial variable in the initial client conference. Rapport can promote an easy, comfortable and free relationship where both the counselor and client can be honest and open. According to Arbuckle, such rapport may be influenced by: (1) the image of the counselor or the counselor role that the client may have prior to the first meeting; (2) why the client comes to the counselor (Is the client there of his own free will or because he has been sent or asked to come?), (3) the immediate or first impression that the client receives when he enters the counselor's office or office area; (4) the ability of the counselor to accept the client's behavior or view. A client may sometimes make challenging statements or behave in a challenging manner in order to test the counselor's acceptance of him; and (5) the degree to which the counselor is attuned to the feelings and needs of the client.

Arbuckle indicates that the ability of the counselor to establish rapport by overcoming crucial situations depends on his life experiences and personal security.

Buchheimer and Balagh (1961) describe the beginning session between the client and counselor as going through three primary phases: (1) the statement of the problem, (2) exploration and (3) closing and planning for the future. (They indicate that in phase one a goal of the counselor is to communicate complete and genuine acceptance.) In phase two, the

exploratory phase, he needs to be adept at reflection of feeling, clarification of feeling, restatement of content, abstraction of care, and recognition of the essence of themes and concerns. Phase three, the summary or closing and planning phase, is described as the most active phase. the counselor summarizes to effect closure in order to give the client the sense of a complete experience. The intent in planning is to give the client an incentive to return for further counseling.

Buchheimer and Balagh are quick to point out that this pattern of behavior is merely a theoretical framework and that counseling interviews never proceed in such exact sequences. The pattern should only serve as a guide and the counselor should not attempt to force the interview into any pattern that the client does not go along with.

Davies (1973) offers a theoretical model which presents the developer-client relationship going through several stages of complexity. He suggests that the relationship may pass through seven phases within three major stages. Davies also emphasizes the importance of clarifying the assumptions and expectations on which the relationship will be founded. He provides three types of assumptions that tend to influence the direction and success of the relationship.

Silber (1973) proposes a five-stage process in which the client and developer are involved throughout their relationship. He lists eleven strategies that the developer should consider while moving the client through the first two phases of the relationship. Havelock (1973) presents a six-stage process that the change agent-client relationship moves through. He analyzes the first two stages into a series of strategies that the change agent can follow while interacting with the client. Havelock describes the components of an ideal client relationship and presents six danger signals of a potentially bad relationship.

Schein (1973), in his view on process consultation, lists seven stages that a process consultant should consider when interfacing with the client. The first two stages he breaks into several steps for the consultant. Schein's basic premise is that it is the role of the consultant to help others help themselves and it is this principle which affects all decision making. Schein's theoretical process resembles much of the work of Davies.

Medicine provides the diagnostic model which lists ten steps grouped into two major phases. The emphasis is to collect as much data as possible and then analyze or review it until a final diagnosis is reached. The effect of a person's expectations on cognitive processing was reviewed, along with the research that indicates that physicians generate multiple hypotheses and during diagnosis are in a constant state of testing and revising these hypotheses based on data input. Some of the differences between the physician-patient and developer-client are also examined.

Research on Instructional Developer Verbal Behavior in the Initial Client Conference

This section of the paper will present some of the results of a research study by the author on instructional developer behavior in the initial conference with a new client. A brief overview of the research design will be given and then summary data will be described.

The Subjects

Six subjects participated in the study. All were Ph.D.s at Michigan State University with major professional training in instructional development and practicing full-time at the time the study was conducted. The six subjects received their professional graduate training at four different institutions, and represented a wide variety of national and

international experience. The subjects were all males with a mean age of 46 years. The subjects were not drawn randomly, but were selected using specific criteria.

The objectives of the study were outlined to the subjects and they were asked to audio record initial conferences with new clients and send completed tapes to the researcher immediately after a tape had been completed.

The Clients

The generation of new clients for the subjects went through two phases. First, it was the intention of the researcher to use, as much as possible, new clients as they were contacted through the normal ID activities of the subjects. It became apparent that after several months of following this method, that new clients were not coming to the subjects fast enough for the study to be completed within the time constraints imposed on the researcher. To solve this problem, some Michigan State University faculty members were identified and contacted, that were known to be interested or involved in an instructional activity where assistance might be needed. Eighteen people were identified and were briefed on the purpose of the research. Each faculty member explained the nature of the problem with which he needed assistance and once the genuineness of the problem was determined, the faculty member called for an appointment with one of the instructional development consultants. The subjects had no reason to know that a particular client had been recruited for them. The new clients were spaced out over a three-month period. It was stressed to the faculty members that they were to approach the subjects in a normal manner and as if they had initiated the contact. Of the eighteen people who said they would contact a developer, fifteen actually did and of that

fifteen, eleven were recorded by the developers.

Data Collection

Each subject was offered a recorder and blank cassette tapes for the collection of data. Each subject was asked to send as many tapes as possible until notified by the researcher. It was the desire of the researcher to get three technically correct tapes from each instructional developer subject. It became apparent that some developers were not recording the conferences; a strategy was then developed of sending the client in with a recorder to record only if the subject did not ask for permission to record. Only two faculty members actually recorded their own sessions. In all, thirteen tapes were recorded (eleven clients the researcher involved, and two that came in naturally). Five developers completed two tapes and one three, for a total of thirteen.

When each tape was received, it was immediately transcribed. A person would then listen to the tape and read the typed transcription; it was retyped if necessary. A second set of the transcripts was made for use by the coders, listing the utterances of the subjects instead of leaving them in paragraph form.

Content Analysis Method

A content analysis method was adopted for analyzing the transcribed audio tapes. After objectives and content had been identified for the study, a classification was established with 22 categories of analysis being determined, coders were selected and trained to code the data. A method for determining intercoder reliability was also determined.

Initially, it was decided to ask coders to assign each utterance to at least one category in each group except for the substantive and in-

structional design categories. This category did not always have an utterance that could be assigned to it because not all utterances dealt with these categories. So each utterance would always be assigned to two categories and perhaps three as appropriate. This was later to be changed after the coders were trianed.

Four coders were identified and participated in a two-week training program. A coding form and directions were developed and reviewed with them. As coders were given practice, the directions and forms were revised based on their feedback. The categories were also modified due to several suggestions made by the coders. The coders used 22 categories and took three weeks working independently to complete the coding process. Each coder coded all thirteen transcripts..

Intercoder Reliability

In order to place any confidence in the coding process and the coders, it was necessary to determine intercoder reliability. A method suggested by leading researchers in content analysis was used to first determine reliability adjusted for the possibility of chance agreement and then this output was used to calculate a composite reliability for all coders. The results of composite reliability showed the agreement to be 0.83 across all developers and all clients. Since a 60%-70% range is reported by most researchers where coders are making complex judgements, a figure of 0.83 was deemed adequate for this study.

Categories of Behavior Analysis

Based on the research techniques suggested by Gottschalk and Gleser (1969) and Bellack (1966), a content analysis process was designed to

analyze the data from this study. Gottschalk and Gleser applied content analysis to verbal behavior of psychological states and Bellack used content analysis to examine the verbal language of the classroom. Berlson (1952) defines content analysis as:

A research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication.

He goes on to explain that content analysis can be applied to private communication like conversation or the psychoanalytic interviews.

Schutz (1950) suggests that content analysis techniques can also include the description of human behavior, particularly linguistics. Holsti (1969), in discussing the application of content analysis to social science research, affirms that content analysis is a multipurpose research method developed specifically for investigating any problem in which the content of communication serves as the basis of influence.

Borg and Gall (1971) describe the typical process of content analysis as: (1) the researcher tape records the verbal behavior under study; (2) making a typed transcript from the audiotape; and the (3) analyzing the content of the transcription in order to measure the variables formulated by the researcher.

Borg and Gall (1971) summarize key important considerations in planning for content analysis as:

1. Establish specific objectives
2. Selection of unbiased content for analysis
3. Establishment of a classification system for analyzing the content
4. Selection and training of raters or coders
5. Determination of interrater reliability

The method used in this study followed these five procedures

Method for the Establishment of Analysis Categories

For this study, an utterance was selected as the basic unit of analysis. The utterance being defined as one or more words or verbal expressions which are intended to communicate to another individual. For the most part, the utterance was a sentence, but included all verbal responses such as phrases. After all the tapes were transcribed, a classification system was developed in order to identify the categories of utterances.

As suggested by Budd (1967), the categories were developed within the framework of three primary requirements: (1) that they fit the needs of the study, (2) be exhaustive, and (3) be mutually exclusive. Each transcript was first read by the researcher while listening to the tape. The transcripts were then re-read without the tape. During each of these readings, the transcripts were reviewed in the following areas:

1. Classes of behavior that seem to be exhibited by each developer.
2. Frequency of this behavior for each developer.
3. Frequency of this behavior for all developers.

The preliminary reading disclosed to the researcher three tentative major groups of behavior which appeared to be operating concurrently. These groups were: (1) the phases of verbal behavior which extended throughout the conference; (2) the content of the verbal behavior; and (3) the verbal behavior which seemed to deal with process. Each utterance could fall into each one of these groups of behavior. During a second and third reading of the transcripts, each group of behaviors was analyzed to determine the component parts (see Appendix G for the first draft of the category system prior to testing with data coders). In the final version of the category system, the first major group of utterances was related to phases and seemed to break the conference into four temporal parts. The three groups of verbal behavior are con-

current with regard to any particular utterance which means any utterance could be included in more than one group. The four temporal parts are: (1) the introductory phase, (2) the problem identification phase, (3) the solution(s) discussion phase, and (4) the termination or closing phase.

The introductory phase was defined as that period of time early in the discussion when the developer was getting personal background information on the client, making initial small talk, breaking the ice, and in general putting the client at ease. The problem identification phase was defined as when the developer tried to identify and clarify the problem with which the client is concerned. The solution(s) discussion phase seemed to occur after a particular solution or solutions has been suggested or when the advantages and disadvantages of a particular solution were discussed. The last phase, termination or closing, included those utterances which began to draw the conference to a close.

The second major group of utterances which was concerned with content included instructional design and/or substantive verbal behavior. Instructional design verbal behavior seemed to consist primarily of problem related objectives, methods, media and evaluation, so categories were established in these areas. The objectives category included all those utterances which were primarily concerned with objectives of the instruction under discussion. The methods category included any utterances related to instructional strategy or method. The media category was related to any utterance concerned with instructional materials. The last design category in this group was evaluation, and all utterances related to student or course evaluation were included here. The substantive-content-utterances included all those that were related to the

body of knowledge of the client.

The last major group of utterances was somewhat more specific with regard to process functions and included all verbal communication behaviors. Twelve were finally identified for the data coders as: reinforcing, soliciting information, soliciting agreement, prompting, defining, explaining, opining, assumption and expectation clarification, informalizing, structuring, summarizing and declarative.

The three groups of verbal behaviors are concurrent behaviors with regard to any particular utterance. For example, a statement must be included in one of the five phases, may be included as a design component or be a substantive statement concerned with clarifying a particular concept within the body of knowledge of the client. At the same time, every utterance should be included in one of the last twelve communication categories. In review, every utterance falls within one of the phases. Additionally, an utterance might fall in one of the design or substantive categories. If the utterance does not deal with a content area, no code is given in this area. Any particular statement would fall into at least two categories and perhaps three.

The final act of analyzing categories includes the following:

Phases of Behavior. Every utterance should fall into one of these phases:

1. Introductory Phase: This is where the developer is getting background information on the client, making initial small talk (i.e., weather, baseball, etc.).
2. Problem Identification Phase: This is when the developer is trying to pinpoint the problem the client is faced with. The client may not even know the real problem.
3. Solution Discussion Phase: This is when the developer discusses with the client possible solutions to the problem. Included also would be any utterances related to the suggested solutions.

4. Termination or Closing Phase: This is when the developer draws the meeting to a close in a formal way by making statements which communicate to the client that the meeting is nearing the end or ending.

Content Categories. The second general category in the content analysis system deals with Substantive and Instructional Design components. Not all utterances can be coded one of these. If it has not been coded substantive or instructional design, code it "None". The categories are:

5. Substantive: All those utterances which are concerned with the content or body of knowledge relating to the client's problem (i.e., botany, sociology, etc.). Not all utterances can be coded as substantive.
6. Objectives: This would be any utterance in reference to the objectives of instruction.
7. Methods: This would be any statement which would be concerned with method (a strategy) or how to teach. It could be very general or very specific.
8. Media: This would be concerned with any discussion of instructional materials (film, TV, slides, overhead transparencies, etc.).
9. Evaluation: Any statement about how to evaluate students, the course, etc., would fall into this category (e.g., tests).
10. None: Any statement that cannot be coded Substantive or Instructional Design.

Process Categories. The third general category in the content analysis system is concerned with the process of verbal communication behavior functions of the developers. This is classifying in a specific way what the developer is saying with each statement to the client. The specific categories are:

11. Reinforcing: Those utterances which verbally reward or praise the client for something he has said or done (e.g., right, very good, good, good point, etc.).
12. Soliciting Information: Utterances which seek information of any kind from the client.
13. Prompting: A statement which cues the client toward some intended behavior. Careful attention should be paid to this category (i.e., what may appear to be a question is really attempting to prompt the client to discover a point, i.e., "Why do you think students behave that way?").
14. Explaining: Statements which explain to the client issues, methods or applications of concepts or principles. These are usually theory or data based utterances.

15. Opining: The developer giving a personal point of view or opinion. Careful attention should be given as to discriminate from explaining (example: I think that in higher education today we don't structure learning enough). These are usually not theory or data based utterances.
16. Assumption and Expectation Clarification: Statements which clarify roles, responsibilities and expected results of the relationship between the developer and the client.
17. Informalizing: Statements which promote an open, informal talking environment (i.e., "break the ice" statements; "Isn't old Joe Blow in your department?" "Want a cup of coffee?").
18. Structuring: Statements which establish or re-establish the process of the working relationship (Let's first take a look at your problem and then come up with possible solutions). This usually includes utterances which refer to what will happen.
19. Summarizing: This is a review of any particular steps in the structuring, and are statements which review progress in the discussion. Be careful that the developer is not restructuring the process. Reviewing one part of what has happened; looking backward.
20. Declarative: Statements in which the developer declares intent to do something for the client (i.e., "I'll get a copy of that book and send it to you").
21. Dispensing: The giving of information about human and non-human resources which may help the client with his problem. This last category, even though it is numbered with the communications, is really separate.
22. Nonsense: Any utterance which can't be read or understood by you, the coder. If it just doesn't make sense, code it here.

Numbering system for content analysis categories:

Phases:

1. Introductory
2. Problem Identification
3. Solution Discussion
4. Termination/closing

Content (Substantive and Instructional Design):

5. Substantive
6. Objectives
7. Methods
8. Media
9. Evaluation
10. None

Process (Process and Verbal Communication Behavior Functions):

11. Reinforcing
12. Soliciting Information
13. Prompting
14. Explaining
15. Opining
16. Assumption
17. Informalizing
18. Structuring
19. Summarizing
20. Declarative
21. Dispensing
22. Nonsense

After the coding form and directions were redesigned, all transcripts were placed in random order in a file drawer along with ample coding forms. The coders were required to select the transcripts randomly and work independently at their own pace through each transcript. A record was kept of when transcripts were checked out and when they were returned. Each transcript had the number of the instructional developer (1-6) and also the letter of the client (A, B, C). All coding forms were marked for the developer, client and coder. Five developers had two clients and one developer had three, for a total of thirteen clients or transcripts.

Comparison of All Instructional Developers

It became apparent after looking at the behavior of each developer and each client, that there were several commonalities of behavior in the initial conference regardless of the client or the problem the client brought to the developer. The most obvious behavior was that, in the four phases of behavior, developers spent the largest percent of their time discussing possible solutions to the clients' problems. This category ranged from 57.96% for developer three, client B, to 91.31% for developer six, client C.

The percentage for all developers was 74.57% (see Table 1).

Another obvious trend was the percent of time spent on problem identification. Without exception, the second highest time-consuming effort by all the developers went to the identification and clarification of the client's problem. The range for this verbal activity by developers was from 13.11% for developer five, client A to 32.06% for developer four, client A. Across all the developers, the percentage for this category was 19.81% (see Table 1).

The percent of time the developers spent in the introductory phase in such preliminary activities as getting background on the clients or putting the client at ease through small talk or, in general, "breaking the ice", varied considerably. With some clients, developers spent 0.00% performing this behavior, such as developer three, client A, or developer four, client B. On the other hand, developer two spent 8.96% of the time in preliminary activities with client B. The percent for all developers and clients was 1.80% (see Table 1). The trend across all developers placed the introductory phase as receiving the least amount of emphasis in the initial client interactions.

The fourth phase, termination and closing, also shows a great variety of behavior across all clients. It ranges from 0.00% with developer six, client A, to a 20.68% from developer five, client A. For all developers, termination and closing was 3.66% which gave it the third level of emphasis in the four phases of verbal behavior.

In the content categories, the only obvious common pattern of verbal behavior across all clients and all developers exists in the methods category. Most developers spent 20%-40% of their time talking about instructional methods with the client, regardless of the client's problem. The

Table 1

Percent of Developers' Utterances
In Each Phase

Total Utterance Frequency = 3353

Dev.	Phases					% Total
	Intro.	Prob. Id.	Sol. Discus.	Term Closing	Not Coded	
1	1.83	25.63	61.95	10.33	0.26	100
2	3.46	23.41	70.91	2.15	0.07	100
3	3.60	21.94	71.99	1.84	0.63	100
4	0.09	22.87	74.52	2.49	0.03	100
5	3.13	16.22	70.41	10.24	0.00	100
6	0.86	14.50	84.36	.31	0.00	100
Wtd. Avg.	1.80	19.81	74.57	3.66	0.16	100

two exceptions to this were developer one, client A, who spent 9.44% on methods and developer three, client B, who spent only 6.97% in this area. It is interesting to note that in the developer one, client A, conference the issue was very subject specific and required a 12.87% effort in the substantive category and 14.11% in the objective category. With developer three and client B, the problem under discussion was one of evaluation which required 21.52% of the developer's time in the evaluation area. It seems wherever the developer had a more general problem to deal with, instructional methods received the largest percent of attention of all the content categories.

Over the rest of the content categories, the verbal behavior varies greatly. In the substantive category, for example, the percent for all six developers ranged from 2.77% for developer two, to 14.56% for developer one. The percent for all developers in this category was 6.43%.

The second highest percent in the content categories across all developers was the evaluation area. Even though the range of developers' verbal behavior was from 0.00% to 22.42%, there was a tendency by most instructional developers who were not specifically dealing with evaluation, such as developer three, client B (21.50%) and developer six, client C (22.42%) to treat evaluation equally with the other content categories. It can be said that, because of the relatively high percentage, evaluation received the second highest degree of verbal attention over all the instructional developers.

The objective category also ranged widely. Developer four, with both clients, gave this category practically no emphasis, and developer one gave 14.11% and 9.23% with clients A and B, respectively. The objective category, over all developers, was 4.19% (see Table 2).

The last category to be discussed will be media, which is category 8. Over all the developers, the media category was more consistently emphasized than evaluation. The range of verbal behavior of the developers was 1.24% by developer three, client B who was primarily dealing with an evaluation problem, to 20.54% for developer two, client B who was working with a client who wanted to improve her teaching through more effective use of overhead transparencies and motion picture film. The percent across all developers was 5.75%. Nine of the thirteen clients placed an emphasis on the media category from 4% to 10%.

Table 2

Each Developer and All Clients
Percent of Developer Utterances
by Content Categories

Total Utterance Frequency = 3353

Dev.	Categories						
	Sub	Obj	Meth	Media	Eval	None	Not Coded
1	14.56	12.32	13.26	6.26	9.81	43.79	0.00
2	2.77	2.01	29.43	10.25	1.94	53.60	0.00
3	9.51	4.08	27.28	1.31	9.03	48.64	0.00
4	6.82	.17	32.82	7.65	1.66	50.70	0.18
5	3.86	6.91	18.35	8.24	9.18	53.39	0.07
6	3.17	2.50	34.05	4.17	11.40	44.69	0.02
Wtd. Avg.	6.43	4.19	27.57	5.73	7.88	48.13	0.07

The "None" category 10 in Table 2 shows that a percent of 48.13% of all the utterances across all developers could not be included as fitting into one of the content categories. Obviously, this means that an average of 51.87% of all the utterances could be included as substantive and instructional design. The "not coded" percent included all nonsense and error.

In the process behavior functions there were four areas of emphasis that stand out as receiving most of the developer's attention in the initial conference. The obvious area is the explaining category (14). The average across

all developers in this category was 49.22% (see Table 3). They ranged from 29.67% for developer one, client A to 60.11% for developer six, client C. This, of course, means that 49.22% of all verbal behaviors was spent in explaining concepts and principles related to the client's problem. Regardless of the client or client's problem, the developers spent, by far, the largest percent of their time explaining or, in a manner of speaking, teaching the client key ideas related to his or her instructional problem.

Related to the explaining category is the opining category, because in both cases the developers were telling the clients something. This category received the second highest emphasis for all instructional developers with 18.29% (see Table 3). This means, of course, according to the data, for all developers, that 18.29% of the developers' verbal behaviors was spent in giving the clients their personal opinions on problem-related issues. Combined with the 49.72% in the explaining category, the developers spent 68.01% of all their verbal behavior telling the client something. The opining category ranged from 10.89% with developer four, client B to a 77.84% with developer one, client B.

The percent for all developers in the reinforcing category was 8.79%. (see Table 3). This received the third highest emphasis for all developers. So 8.79% of the developers' verbal activity was spent in reinforcing or praising the client on his behavior related to the problem being discussed.

It is interesting to note that for all the developers, the fourth highest amount of verbal activity occurred in the area of reinforcing client behavior. This category received an 8.38% (see Table 3) across all developers. This, according to the data, shows that out of all the verbal behaviors, the developers are putting an 8.38% effort into telling the client how good he has done or is doing with the problem at hand which, of course, can affect positively the client's continued interest and guide desired behavior change.

The data also show that a 3.93% effort was spent in prompting the client to learn or discuss a desired behavior in the initial conferences. In such an instance, a developer may not have explained to a client a particular concept or principle but, through a series of statements, helped the client to discover it himself.

Another category of behavior which received a moderately high emphasis by all developers was the dispensing of information related to resources, human and otherwise, that might help the client with the problem. Dispensing received a 3.70% emphasis overall (see Table 3) and two developers gave it an emphasis of over 7%. All of the rest of the verbal behavior in the process categories were below 2%, with most being close to 1% (see Table 3). The least emphasis for all developers was placed with the declarative category (19), which indicates, according to the data, that little verbal behavior overall was devoted to giving a commitment to do something for this client after the conference. This might include commitment to a next meeting in order to continue helping the client with the problem.

Table 3

Each Developer and All Clients
Percent of Developer Utterances
by Process Functions

Total Utterance Frequency = 3353

Dev.	Categories					
	Reinf	Sol Info	Prompt	Explain	Opining	As/Exp
1	11.06	17.22	4.07	29.23	24.01	1.72
2	6.16	11.43	5.19	51.80	13.57	.83
3	3.40	7.04	4.47	54.57	21.26	1.21
4	7.91	11.84	4.81	52.58	16.13	.87
5	10.57	7.51	5.12	38.90	21.21	2.79
6	11.14	2.38	2.26	58.33	15.98	.81
Wtd. Avg.	8.79	8.38	3.93	49.72	18.29	1.24
Dev.	Infor	Struct	Summar	Declar	Dispen	Not Coded
1	1.93	1.15	1.77	.78	6.58	0.48
2	3.81	.97	.76	2.77	1.94	0.77
3	1.84	1.17	.44	.83	3.79	0.00
4	.09	1.05	.48	2.80	1.01	0.43
5	1.00	1.80	.86	2.73	6.85	0.66
6	.31	2.29	.95	1.40	3.48	0.67
Wtd. Avg.	1.19	1.54	.88	1.76	3.76	0.07

The percentage for all developers over all categories in each group of behavior can be ranked as follows:

Phases

<u>Ranking</u>	<u>Category Number</u>	<u>Category Name</u>	<u>Average %</u>
1	3	Solution Discussion	74.57%
2	22	Problem Identification	19.81%
3	4	Termination/Closing	3.66%
4	1	Introduction	1.80%

Content

(Substantive and Instructional Design)

1	7	Methods	27.57%
2	9	Evaluation	7.88%
3	5	Substantive	6.43%
4	8	Media	5.73%
5	6	Objectives	4.19%

Process Behavior Functions

1	14	Explaining	49.72%
2	15	Opining	18.29%
3	11	Reinforcing	8.79%
4	12	Soliciting Information	8.38%
5	13	Prompting	3.93%
6	21	Dispensing	3.76%
7	20	Summarizing	1.76%
8	18	Structuring	1.54%
9	16	Assumption/Expectation	1.24%
10	17	Informalizing	1.19%
11	19	Declarative	.58%

Discussion of Findings as Related to
Selected Theoretic Models

Davies Approach

Davies (1973) described three dimensions of an instructional developer-client relationship. One dimension includes the preliminary functions, which are performed with the client, which are problem definition, interpretation of the data and the generation of alternative solutions. The second dimension of the working relationship, according to Davies, is concerned with identifying the type of assumption which underlies the relationship. The third dimension is listing the successive stages in the

development of the relationship. Parallel to the last dimension is a sequence of task-oriented steps which include the general areas of diagnosis, planning action, implementing action and evaluation.

The categories developed in this study to analyze the verbal behaviors of instructional developers in initial developer-client conferences indicate that there are some similarities to what Davies proposes in his model. According to the data from this study, there was in each conference a problem definition activity and a significant emphasis on solution discussion which seems to agree with what Davies proposes as generation of alternative solutions (see Table 4). The difference may be in how much of the solution discussion was centered around the generation of several alternatives or the discussion of the solution(s). Problem identification, or problem definition as Davies labels it, was found in this study to be a significant part of the developer's verbal activity. Davies, too, places important emphasis on problem definition which indicates a point of agreement between the study and Davies' model.

Davies also places great emphasis on clarifying the kinds of assumptions which will underlie the relationship. In terms of the verbal behavior of the developer, this received one of the least amounts of emphasis. It should be noted here that one of the assumptions which seem to underlie Davies' thinking is that the developer-client relationship may be more longitudinal in nature, than just one meeting. In no instance did any developer indicate a strong interest in extending the relationship beyond the initial conference in an organized manner. This may account for the small emphasis, since the developers may not have expected any lasting professional relationship.

Davies' three stages of the instructional developer-client relationship (entering into the relationship, maintaining the relationship and terminating the relationship) is difficult to relate to the data from the initial conferences. Davies' stages seem to indicate a longer term relationship than was apparent in this study. However, in examining the first stage, entering into a relationship, and its two subcomponents (1) initial contact with the client system, and (2) negotiation of a formal contract, it is obvious that there was client contact. However, analysis of the verbal behavior in establishing the categories of analysis did not reveal any utterances by any developers to negotiate a formal relationship with the clients.

Table 4

Agreement Between Theoretical Models and
Findings by Phases

Model	Phases			
	1	2	3	4
Davies	Some	Yes	Yes	Some
Silber	Some	Yes	Yes	No
Havelock	Some	Yes	Yes	Some

Silber's Approach

Silber (1973) proposes a five-stage process which he describes as the "People Function/Skills Involved in Working Content Specialty to Develop Instructional Systems." He describes the five stages as: (1) establishing the relationship, (2) gathering data regarding the problem, (3) working toward a solution, (4) challenging the client, and (5) managing the development.

Stage one in Silber's model is related closely to the introductory phase of the researcher's analysis categories. Silber describes the components of his stage as breaking the ice, establishing an open light-hearted, non-threatening tone. The data show that all developers placed some emphasis in this area. Silber also sees the identification of expectations and assumptions as part of this stage. The data do show that all developers gave some emphasis in this area, but it is not clear where, within the stages or phases of the conference, this did take place. (see Table 4).

Silber identifies the next stage as the process of gathering data regarding the problem, which is comparable to the problem identification phase in this study. The third stage Silber presents is aimed a working toward a solution, which is consistent with phase three of this study, solution discussion. This study showed that the solution discussion phase received more emphasis in terms of developer verbal behavior than the other three phases. Silber or Davies do not mention relative emphasis in terms of their stages, but Silber does present strategies for implementing all his principles.

Silber's stage four, challenging the client, is described as challenging the client intellectually by selectively disagreeing in an

academic manner. This stage did not manifest itself in the verbal behavior of the instructional developers in this study.

Silber describes his last stage as managing the development. As in Davies, the implication here is that an agreement has been made for the developer and client to work beyond the initial conference in an organized manner, which was not true with any of the developers in this study. This stage of Silber's includes two subcategories. One is assigning work and the other is criticizing materials together. Assigning work calls for task identification and assignment, time lines and getting a psychological contract from the client to do his share. In criticizing work together, the emphasis is placed on being constructively critical and offering to help with counseling efforts. The developers in this study gave no indication, by their verbal behavior, that the behavior represented in this stage of Silber's model was being performed.

Table 5
Agreement Between Theoretical Models and
Findings by Content Categories

Model	Content (Substantive and Instructional Design)					
	5	6	7	8	9	10
Davies	Some	No	No	No	Some	----
Silber	Some	No	No	No	No	----
Havelock	Some	No	No	No	No	----

Havelock's Change Agent Literature

Havelock (1973) presents a model for working with clients by the change agent which provides a six-stage process that may have considerable application to the instructional developer. Stage one, the relationship stage, suggests that a viable helping role must be established with the client early if the relationship is to have a strong foundation for further development. He describes stage two as a period of problem diagnosis, and stage three a step to identify and acquire relevant resources prior to choosing a solution, which is stage four. During the solution choosing stage, Havelock suggests that a number of alternatives are generated from which a potential is selected. Stage five is concerned with gaining acceptance of the solution and in stage six, stabilization and self-renewal, the change agent attempts to develop the client so that he can function independently.

In this study, the introduction category of verbal behavior is consistent with what Havelock calls the relationship stage and is also similar to the early stages suggested by Davies and Silber. Problem diagnosis, as Havelock labels it, was found to be comparable to phase two of this study. The third stage in Havelock's model (acquiring relevant resources) was not explicit in the verbal behavior of instructional developers in the initial conference with new clients. In the developer-client conference, the developer served as the primary resource for problem solution. In each case, since the developer went into discussing the solution, he apparently felt he had enough data to proceed in such a manner. It is obvious, since all developers went through the solution choosing stage to closing out the conference, that none felt the need to stop after the problem had been identified and seek more resource data prior to selecting a solution in a next meeting. Havelock's stage four (choosing a solution) is included in the solution discussion phase of this study.

Havelock places no emphasis on this stage, but seems to be in agreement on the importance of the activity (see Table 4).

Stage five (acceptance of the solution) would also be part of the definition of solution discussion. In the initial coder training process, an attempt was made to train coders to pick this dimension out of the general solution discussion category, but after several training attempts the coders felt the judgments were too sophisticated with the kind of data that was being used.

Stage six, stabilization and self-renewal, seems to relate to a long-term change strategy and not the kind of verbal behavior found in the thirteen client conferences. In this study, the developer-client relationship seemed to come to closure after the initial conference and not be structured or organized to move into a longer relationship.

The data in this study seems to confirm at a general level certain components of Davies, Silber and Havelock models. The three models seem to be consistent with each other and this study, in terms of a first step with the client which was labeled introductory, relationship establishing or entering into the relationship stage. The models and the results of the study seem to agree on the importance of a problem identification, description emphasis and also a solution generating, solution discussion phase. The models went beyond the results and intentions of this study to propose how each phase or stage might be performed by the instructional developer or professional.

The results of this study clearly go beyond the models by describing what goes on within the first stage in terms of types of verbal behavior related to the content or substantive domain of the client. In addition, the results of this study go on to describe the kind and frequency of verbal communication behaviors which function concurrently with substantive

and instructional design components as part of a major phase of behavior.

Table 6

Agreement Between Theoretical Models and
Findings by Process Categories

Models	11	12	13	14	15	16
Davies	No	Some	No	No	No	No
Silber	Some	Some	No	No	No	No
Havelock	Some	Some	Some	No	No	No
Models	17	18	19	20	21	22
Davies	No	No	No	No	No	--
Silber	Some	No	No	No	No	--
Havelock	Yes	No	No	No	Some	--

Areas of Competency For The
Initial Client Conference

The review of theoretical models from the literature and results of research done by the author indicate the necessity of the following areas of competency for the instructional developer in the initial developer-client conference.

Competency Areas

1. Clarifying the assumptions and expectations of the relationship.
2. Negotiating the formal psychological contract.
3. Data gathering for problem identification.
4. Problem identification

5. Listening skills.
6. Non-verbal perception skills.
7. Identifying the clients system.
8. Determining consistency of client problem with ID agencies program objectives.
9. Establishing a friendly open relationship.
10. "Breaking the Ice" techniques.
11. Techniques of discussing the problem.
12. Termination or closing the conference.
13. Instructional methods for various teaching settings.
14. Techniques of helping clients analyze their substantive teaching discipline.
15. Applying evaluation principles to client uniqueness.
16. Utilization of instructional media to different instructional problems.
17. Operationalizing the use of instructional objectives with a great variety of problems and clients.
18. Explaining and giving opinions in a non-threatening manner.
19. Techniques of reinforcing client behavior.
20. Soliciting information from the client.
21. Prompting client behavior.
22. Structuring client-developer interaction.
23. Summarizing status of conference.
24. Informalizing the conference setting.
25. Dispensing of resource information.

Method of Training

A variety of training methods could be used to insure mastery of specific competencies developed from each of the competency areas. The following methods are suggested.

Mastery of Concepts and Principles - In a didactic teaching setting students would learn the concepts and principles of the competency areas. Discussion of sample problems and cases.

Role Playing with Peers - Students take turns role playing clients with different kinds of problems. Peers give feedback on performance.

Observation of Model Developers - Through an observation setting or by video tape observe model practioner. Models should demonstrate by correct and incorrect performance. Observe response to performance in group.

Perform with Surrogate Clients - Each student would be video taped with three surrogate clients. The tape would be self critical first, followed by peer and instructor critique.

Application of Skills in an Internship - An Internship should be planned into a program so students have an opportunity to practice under supervision. Instructors should plan to talk with client and observe the student in a real world setting.

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